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AUTHOR Davis, Brian K.
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ABSTRACT

A general introduction to the concept of microteaching and its development is presented, and the generally accepted format and the skills practiced for microteaching are described. Aspects of microteaching commonly perceived as favorable and unfavorable are addressed, and a review of current research is provided and followed by a discussion of the directions that microteaching has taken and may yet take. Evidence is presented to support the contention that microteaching, in its pure form, suffered infant mortality and that a great deal of subsequent work in the area resulted from a premature locking-in on an undeveloped process. The degree of flexibility permissible for microteaching is explored, and the importance of pre- and post-microteaching activities is emphasized. Alternative ways of using microteaching to enhance the preparation of teachers are considered with a focus on a return to the original intent of the process. The task ahead for microteaching and its place in the education program are considered. (Author/JD)

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MICROTEACHING:
FROM INFANT DEATH TO IMMORTALITY?

BRIAN K. DAVIS
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY
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No one can entertain a doubt that there is a mastery in teaching as in every other art. Nor is it less obvious that within reasonable limits this skill and this mastery may themselves be made the subject of instruction and be communicated to others.[1]

The question then was: What is this skill and how can one communicate it to others? This question remains the hard core of the issue.[2]

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is twofold. Firstly, it provides a general introduction to the concept of microteaching and its development, describing the generally accepted format and the skills practised. Aspects of microteaching commonly perceived as favourable and unfavourable are addressed and a review of current research is given.

There follows a discussion of the directions that microteaching has taken and yet may take. Evidence is presented to support the contention that microteaching in its pure form suffered infant mortality and that a great deal of subsequent work in the area resulted from a premature locking-in on an undeveloped process. The degree of flexibility that may be permitted before the technique ceases to be microteaching is explored and the importance of the pre- and post-microteaching activities is emphasized. Alternative ways of using microteaching to enhance the preparation of teachers are considered with a focus on a return to the original intent of the process. Finally the task ahead for microteaching and its place in the education programme is considered.

Developmental Overview

The questioning of the effectiveness of professional education courses in helping students to become skilled classroom teachers is by no means a new phenomenon. By the middle of this century, not only teachers who reported that they really learned to teach 'on the job', and that pre-service training was of little or no help, but many of those involved in the training of teachers had also reached dissatisfaction with established programs.

Among alternatives put forward was the concept of microteaching which represented a significant departure from traditional forms of teacher training.[3] The approach developed at Stanford University was seen as being capable of acclimating students to teaching over a much shorter period, such as three months, in contrast to having them accustom themselves to the classroom environment over a long period of student observation of from six months to two years and/or aiding the teacher and/or teaching.

Sequence

Many different variants of microteaching were used at Stanford during the 1960s, although something approaching a standard format began to emerge. It consisted of the sequence Plan - Teach - Observe (critique) - Replan - Reteach - Reobserve. Each cycle was devoted to the practice of one component skill such as set induction, closure, effective questioning, pupil reinforcement, and pupil participation.

Lectures and skill demonstrations, via role models, were given to the students prior to the practice of the skill.

A More Detailed Sequence

1. A particular skill is defined to student-teachers in terms of a pattern of teaching behaviour and the objectives which such behaviour is aimed at achieving; some attempt is made to justify the value of the objectives and the suggested efficacy of the skill.

2. Videotapes or films are shown of teachers using the skill, in microteaching or in normal classroom teaching, together with a commentary drawing attention to specific instances of the teacher's use of the skill.

3. The student-teacher plans a short lesson in which he can use the skill and teaches it, usually five to ten minutes, to a small group of students (4-8).

4. The student-teacher and the supervisor (often a more experienced teacher) critique the lesson. If a videotape has been made it is replayed and analyzed by the student with the help of the supervisor who attempts to make reinforcing comments about the instances of effective use of the skill, drawing the students' attention to other situations where the skill could have been exercised.

5. After the critique, the student-teacher is given time to revise the lesson in order to use the skill more effectively.

6. The revised lesson is retaught to a different but comparable group of pupils.

7. A video of the 'reteach' lesson is replayed and analyzed with the help of the supervisor.

8. The process may be repeated until a specified level of mastery is attained.

Many variations of the above pattern are possible. By using different lesson lengths, number of students, subject level and content, the use of videotape and/or supervisor and/or peer feedback, and the presence of model tapes of teaching skills, a variety of training (and of course, research) configurations are possible.

A Short Definition of Microteaching

Microteaching can be defined as a scaled-down lesson of five to ten minutes in length during which the teacher presents content but concentrates upon a specific teaching skill throughout the presentation.

A Definition of Skill

A set of related types of teaching behaviour which in specified types of classroom situations tends to facilitate the achievement of specified types of objectives.

The purpose of skill specification is twofold. Firstly, it directs students' attention to particular limited aspects of their teaching in order that they may reflect carefully on

the function and justification of those aspects of their intended or observed behaviour. Secondly, it makes explicit the criteria in terms of which students are asked to plan and evaluate their teaching, thus providing more objective evaluation and facilitating the use of criteria based upon the best available knowledge about teaching.

Unfortunately, while at the moment there is a considerable collection of data on the skills that teachers use the best available knowledge provides little data on their effectiveness. To specify a set of teaching behaviours as a 'skill' is justifiable only if these behaviours do tend to be interrelated, and if students' use of such behaviours does lead them to being assessed as more competent teachers.

Some Aspects of Microteaching Perceived as Favourable

1. Videotaping as a feedback device enables a reliving of the lesson in a way that would not be possible from memory or audio sources.

2. Microteaching requires students to plan, teach and evaluate a lesson in a realistic situation. It is not make-believe: the teacher really teaches, the students really learn, the lesson is short simply because the teacher is required to concentrate on specific skills. The teacher has to consider carefully just what he can realistically teach, given such constraints as time.

3. The viewing and discussing of each other's lessons is

afforded the students. Such an opportunity may never occur again in a teacher's career (the 'closed door' aspect of teaching).

4. The context for discussion of certain crucial 'how-to' questions is provided; such questions as how to introduce a topic, in what order to place skills.

5. The learning environment is less complex than the normal school classroom.

6. A context in which the student-teacher can primarily learn without having to cope with pupil needs and demands is provided.

7. A systematic analysis of his own teaching and self-evaluation of it by the student-teacher is permitted.

Some Aspects of Microteaching Perceived as Unfavourable

1. The exclusive focus on one thing at a time, that is the particular skill being practiced, can be so completely out of context and so singularly emphasized as to depart from any teaching realism.

2. The five to ten minute (indeed, ten to fifteen minute) lesson may be too short. It departs from the complex classroom reality and does not provide enough time for the development of a lesson, the practice of the majority of those skills used in a school lesson, or building meaningfully on the existing knowledge of the pupils.

3. Following from (2), the practice of certain skills alone proves very difficult unless embodied in a particular strategy with other skills.

4. Neither the practice of one or two skills, nor the one-teach-reteach cycle per skill, is sufficient practice for many students.

5. In instances where school age pupils are used (on the basis that skills which may have seemed effective with a small group of peers do not necessarily work with large groups of, in many cases, unmotivated pupils) there is the problem of knowing little in advance about those pupils. This refers to such as the course being followed, the point reached, the approach taken and the competency level.

6. Microteaching, unless preceded by successful performance in microplanning, could be a case of misplaced emphasis. Microplanning is designed to accomplish behaviours characteristic of good planning and relates and explains the teachings.

7. The 'training' aspect of microteaching is criticized in that it is 'training' rather than 'education', producing teachers who perform in some accepted fashion rather than human beings capable of making critical judgment of the appropriateness of the skills. It has been considered presumptuous in our present state of knowledge to decide which behaviours to reinforce, for which teachers, in

interaction with which students. The crucial question may be not which behaviour but how to bring about appropriate shifts in perception.

8. Following from (7) is the growth of self-perception whereby teachers become more sensitive to themselves and their pupils and to the interrelationship of those sensitivities. Focus upon the performance of skills and upon the teacher's ability to perform those specific skills inhibits this growth. In this respect, the use of videotaping is generally considered conducive to growth although claims that videotaping produces high anxiety in students are still heard.

Current Research

Microteaching has been perceived by many as a mere behaviour modification technique, the theoretical rationale for which supported the originally developed concept at Stanford. It should be noted, however, that the behaviour modification principles were extended beyond the narrow confines of behaviour modification techniques (McIntyre et al., 1977, pp. 254-5).

Microteaching is a shift towards a different conception of what professional teaching might involve and therefore of new ways of preparing people for teaching.[4] Comparison of its effectiveness with conventional procedures therefore is inappropriate. Conventional methods involve a system whereby student-teachers are attached to a school and attempt to

implement recommended theories and practices. Feedback is supplied by the supervisor who often has the dual role of advisor and assessor. In addition students are expected to practice teaching in a context that many find threatening and where there is a distinct possibility that worthwhile theoretical concepts will be abandoned in favour of mere survival skills.

Nevertheless, McKnight and Bush (1977) report several such comparative studies. In general these studies support the efficacy of microteaching over other approaches. The majority of research has been concerned with comparisons among different versions of microteaching with the aim of finding the most effective combination of components to optimize students' use of the skills being practiced. Although much of this research has been technically highly competent, there is not a great deal which one can deduce from it.[5]

Turney et al. (1973) commenting on numerous studies stated that

> in all, the studies of the effectiveness of microteaching strongly support its use in teacher education. Not only does it seem to facilitate significantly the acquisition of teaching skills and the development of favourable attitudes towards teaching, but it does so in a relatively short time. (p. 7)

Concerning student attitudes to microteaching Turney et al. further concluded that

> On the whole, student reactions to microteaching programmes have been most favourable, though there are doubtless isolated instances of students reacting unfavourably to it, particularly the videotape recording. Most students acknowledge that any stress or artificiality are outweighed by the considerable advantages to be obtained from the experience. Staff and pupils seem to gain through involvement in microteaching programmes. (p. 10)

Brown (1975) cited several studies of the relationship between performance in microteaching compared with school experience, and the changes which occur during microteaching.

> Such studies clearly point to a strong relationship between microteaching and school experience. Microteaching performance in fact appears to be the best predictor we have of performance in the classroom. -- thus suggesting that the cumulative effect of microteaching had an effect upon the students' performance in classrooms. Incidentally, the obtained multiple regression equation of microteaching scores accurately predicted 31 out of the 34 students' final scores in the school experience.
>
> . . .The interaction analyses revealed significant changes on nineteen out of thirty variables. Of these, the most important were: At the end of the programme, students asked fewer questions but received correspondingly more answers. The pupil answers were longer. The students were more fluent (the gaps in teacher talk were fewer), they used pupil reinforcement and the pupils' ideas more frequently, they lectured less and their pupils made more voluntary contributions to the discussions.

An implication here is that microteaching may be used to modify teacher behaviour.

Variables within the Microteaching Model

Variables within the microteaching model have attracted considerable attention from researchers. The findings relating to some of these variables within each phase of the three-phase model are given below.

Presentation

A review of Ryan (1976) concluded that research studies supported the general effectiveness of modelling. The relative effectiveness of symbolic, perceptual and audio models remained unclear and might depend upon the circumstances under which they are used. It was suggested that the positive rather than negative model is more effective in inducing skill acquisition, and that viewing models is more effective when a supervisor is present to reinforce instances of desired behaviour. Evidence was shown for both active student participation in model viewing and for repeated viewings of a model in order to focus and reinforce desired behaviour. This focusing on salient cues was found to be strongly supported by research findings. A study by Perlberg et al. (1974) concluded that microteaching improves simple technical skills while a category observation system as a training method produced better results in achieving higher level objectives.

Practice

Ryan (1976) concluded that benefits gained from small class size appeared to be related to administrative expediency and face validity. Pupils rather than peers were seen

as preferred by students and more useful in terms of feedback but not always advantageous in terms of the skills practiced. Johnson and Pancrazio (1971) reported that microteaching with peers was favoured over microteaching with pupils but that the latter was associated with superior performance at the end of student teaching. The effects achieved by the former approach do not appear to have as good transfer value. The reteach interval was found to be more appropriate in the not immediate future following feedback but studies on the optimal interval were inconclusive. Now, as then, this phase of microteaching has not attracted as high a level of research activity as has presentation and feedback.

In a review of important studies on microteaching, McKnight and Bush reported that five to ten minutes seemed to be the acceptable limits, <u>because there were no noticeable attempts to investigate alternative lesson lengths</u>.

McIntyre et al. (p. 251) indicate that

> not only can the length of the lesson and the size of the group be increased but the teaching skills practiced could be rigorously, but less narrowly defined; the focus upon not one particular skill but a group of skills. Such a graded increase would not only allow the combined practice of skills experienced previously but would permit the placing of more emphasis on skills such as lesson structuring, decision-making and classroom management which would become increasingly more relevant as school-based work approached.

McKnight and Bush reported that training programmes emphasize the skills of set induction, closure and questioning. That any skill can be developed in so short a time as a micro-lesson was questioned with the suggestion that microteaching is more useful providing a meaningful context in which aspects of microlesson teaching may be analyzed and discussed.

> Microteaching is a 'different' but not essentially a 'simplified' form of teaching. It is wrong to say: 'Concentrate on this one skill and don't worry about anything else'. Far better to say: 'In the conditions under which you are going to teach what are the relevant questions to ask yourself?' (p. 245)

Feedback

McKnight and Bush cited a number of studies investigating the effects of a variety of feedback forms. Any conclusions must be of a very tentative nature as in most instances little difference between treatment groups was observed. Studies included audio as against visual feedback; face-to-face compared to video with face-to-face, and video with audio; supervisor feedback compared to peer feedback and to no feedback.

McIntyre et al. (p. 255) reported on four studies involving aspects of the feedback process, modelling, cueing, discrimination training, repeated presentation, and personal evaluation.

It was found that students wished for a variety of feedback types involving both peers and supervisor, the latter being considered more valuable, in which the supervisor's

and the student-teacher's perception of both strengths and weaknesses were considered. A clear trend for microteaching with discrimination training (practice in identifying the use of skill) to lead to superior performance was found but this depended on the particular skill and was somewhat overwhelmed by the extent of individual differences among the students. It was also found that the students' use of skills was closely related to differences between subject ideologies.

Four ways were noted in which the pattern of students' comments showed a significant trend as their experience of microteaching increased: an increased focus on pupils, and an increased use of Flander's construct (skills were defined in these terms); and a decrease in negativity and in attention to their own personal characteristics. With the exception of the last one, these changes were gradual. Few differences appeared between the comments on their lessons made by students who had no feedback and comments made by those who did.

Affective Development

McKnight and Bush cited nineteen studies concerned with the effects of microteaching on interpersonal relationships in teaching, student attitudes, and subsequent teacher behaviours. In general studies support the use of microteaching in improving teacher attitudes toward pupils in terms of a more interactive approach and the creation of a positive classroom atmosphere but it was also reported that microteaching measures and student-teacher self concept were found

not to be related (Freeman and Davis, 1974).

Other important points arising from the work of McIntyre et al. follow:

1. Students entering microteaching have distinct individual differences both in teaching ability and conceptual schemata (pp. 225-229, 246, 260). There is implication here for microteaching in a 'remedial' or 'diagnostic' sense. Further, microteaching must be directed toward the changing of the conceptual schemata if it is to successfully achieve its purpose.

2. More account needs to be taken of students' subject-areas (pp. 225, 250). The development of subject-specific skills or modification of already developed skills to take account of the distinctive requirements of different subject-areas may be called for.

3. Microteaching needs to be more strongly linked with school practice (p. 225) or modified in order to make the transition more effective. McKnight and Bush (p. 6) report very little significant attention given to one aspect of this, namely the use of real students as against peers.

4. That microteaching is seen as a depersonalizing, anxiety-producing, behaviour modification technique,

alien to education is a familiar complaint of both students and teachers (see McIntyre et al. pps. 9, 225, 228). Such views, not surprisingly, seem to be held less by teachers of mathematics and science and more by teachers of history and languages. This is an important point to bear in mind when introducing students to microteaching. The main issue for students to grasp is that microteaching is for their benefit, it is not formally assessed, and it may not be too much cause for concern if initially they appear to be making no progress. Once over the shock of seeing themselves on videotape the claims of anxiety soon subside in favour of the usefulness of the experience. A student comfortable with himself and pupils will likely welcome the opportunity to examine individual skills and his own use of them.

Discussion

Teacher training programmes are often based upon the notion of survival of the fittest, rather than the maxim 'proceed from the known to the unknown'. Microteaching attempts to follow the latter on the understanding that teaching has a repertoire of basic skills that can be mastered. These skills have to be identified and taught. The identification is itself a problem but for the would-be teacher the fact that these skills very often are not taught presents an even greater problem. Where does microteaching stand now?

If we were to judge the state of microteaching by the criteria of the quantity of material written about the topic, we might conclude that microteaching is in good health. Certainly, it is becoming widely known as a technique in teacher education. Johnson (1976) reports wide dissemination of microteaching, particularly in the U. S., with a much slower introduction in Great Britain (see McIntyre et al. p. 11). McKnight and Bush (1977, p. 6) indicate a fairly steady development of projects in the preceding five years. As early as 1969, Allen and Ryan opened with a similar comment and followed with a note of caution to those who saw microteaching as a final answer. (p. iii).

The full extent of the use of microteaching may not be fully determined as the concept is often confused with the use of television. As originally conceived, microteaching

was designed to meet a specific need. This was the provision of a reality situation for preservice teachers that would put them in contact with real students and themselves as 'teachers' and familiarize them with their own behaviour. The first technical skill used was 'How to Begin a Lesson' and others were added as the research progressed. It is important to realize that these various skills were 'under investigation'. At the time, it was a moot point as to whether these skills were 'worth' learning. This was clearly realized by the researchers and no implications otherwise are intended. Whatever the various sources of these skills and the reasons for inclusion in the research the technical skills themselves became a focal point of microteaching.

McKnight and Bush (1977) comment on the great flexibility of the components within microteaching, permitting adaptation to a wide variety of teacher education programmes. Further, it noted that only two articles reviewed dealt specifically with the technical skills. By and large, the original skills used at Stanford have seen little modification or development and tend to exist in isolation to one another. A more adequate formulation of the skills and a conceptual structure into which they fit may be a prerequisite for any further development of this aspect of microteaching that seems to be almost universally accepted as a fait accompli.

> ...the danger of looking in too early on a first alternative which arose purely out of chance and convenience.[6]

The worth of these skills is dependent upon the objectives toward whose achievement they are directed. They are not a panacea for teacher effectiveness though they may be skills used by effective teachers. Microteaching is not intended to supply teachers[9] with all the skills required for professional competence. The selection of lesson content, unit planning, and decision-making abilities, particularly in the area of discipline and classroom control, are not addressed under the format of microteaching. This is not to say that the need for these skills may not follow from the microteaching experience.

These 'skills' are worthy in that at one time or another all teachers use them. All lessons begin and end. Teachers ask questions, provide stimuli, and exhibit a variety of behaviours during the process of teaching. They are necessary tools of the trade and all would-be teachers will benefit from knowing them. If the objective is simply to stimulate an awareness of and provide some practice in using these skills without suggesting that they are prerequisite to effective teaching there is no cause for concern.

Such skills are not effective in all situations and there may be circumstances under which certain skills are actually ineffective. The reasons for such may be varied but it is the relationship between skills and effective teaching that most concern teacher educators and so experimental information

about causal links[10] between teacher behaviour and pupil learning become crucial. Copeland (1977, 1978) found an association between a student-teacher's use of a skill in the classroom and the cooperating teacher's use of that skill. Using the skill of probing questions as an example, it was shown that in classrooms where the skill was part of the ecological system typical of the classroom[11] the use of the skill by the student-teacher was reinforced by the pupil's ability to respond to such questions. The converse also pertained.

It is apparent from the above that not only may pupil behaviour be modified by teacher behaviour but that the reverse is also true. This has implications for the pre-socialization of new teachers and the subsequent modification of behaviours on entering the school system. For teacher preparation programmes not utilizing the public schools for microteaching experience, considerable thought might be given to this potential problem. Additionally, research in the area of transfer of skill learning from microteaching to classroom experience must take this into account.

The Stanford microteaching training and research efforts always utilized secondary school students, and the demonstrated[12] advantages of the programmes may have been due in an important extent to this. A recent survey (McKnight and Bush, 1977) indicated that this component of microteaching had not received sufficient attention. Studies comparing the evaluation of

microteaching by peers and school students have been carried out (Hinckley, 1972; Stronck, 1975; Young, 1971) though findings are not conclusive.

Nevertheless, the optimum conditions of microteaching benefit the acquisition of skills for preservice teachers. Included is the opportunity to experience reality conditions that courses, readings, conversations and modelling alone do not provide and in an environment that is supportive and conducive to the development of confidence. The use of such skills in teacher education must remain tentative until evidence of their effectiveness in classroom teaching is available. There is a need idealistically for teacher preparation programmes to systematically evaluate the skills used, particularly with regard to whether pupil learning increases as teachers become more fluent in the use of these skills. Microteaching is, when all is said and done, a process or set of procedures offered to the educational community to see if they can use it to reach their objectives. Unfortunately, some very real real-world conditions mitigate against idealistic evaluation. Microteaching might be said to have undergone various modifications though few of these are likely to be very satisfying to those first involved with it. The work of Johnson (1976) might be considered an exception, though in fairness to others the lack of resources prevents purity of approach in terms of access to pupils, equipment, time and energy of students; real-world conditions that impose limitations.

The number of occasions on which a student-teacher is exposed to microteaching often varies and a mere once or twice hardly constitutes practice (though this might be sufficient for some skills with some students) nor does it constitute a re-teach unless it is the same lesson to equivalent pupils. The concept of holding the lesson (content and skill) constant as a vehicle to carry the practice once again without additional worries of a new skill or new content has intuitive appeal to many. It could be that the reinforcing aspect of microteaching is lost because the new, second lesson does not go well. Thus, the power of the reteach principle is lost as a result of not being able to refine lesson content and use the skill in a smoother fashion.

The events preceding and following the actual microteaching are of supreme importance. Microteaching must of necessity be preceded by microplanning and a preteach conference during which the student and supervisor thoroughly explore the objectives and means of achievement. This is not to say that the student actually teaches the lesson to the supervisor but explores his feelings about the approach he has determined and receives feedback as to the reality of this plan in terms of content, time and utilization of skill. This provides a broader basis for the interpreting of what happens to the teacher, both affectively and cognitively.

Debriefing, the post-microteaching procedure, might best apply the educational maxim of starting where the learner is. A student may not be forced to think cognitively on the skills aspect until he has been allowed to reflect affectively on his immediate feelings of which most students have an abundance on completion of a microteaching experience. It is, of course, not sufficient to merely consider the affective. The student needs to be guided into focusing also on the more substantive issues around what he has done in the lesson.

It might be that microteaching which has not been preceded by exposure to various skills could serve two important purposes. Firstly, it could be used as a screening device in order to ascertain the beginning level of the student. Secondly, microteaching could become in itself a discovery of needs in the student. Learning becomes much more efficient if the learner first feels a need to know that which is to be learned.[13] This is a well known principle that has been somewhat ignored by educators who have developed artificial means of motivating students' desire to learn. If used in this way, microteaching would closely resemble reflective teaching[14] as a means of identifying and discussing variables involved in teaching and learning that may have contributed to the relative success of the lesson.

Miltz (1978) cites three projects which illustrate through its adaptability that microteaching is a dynamic

rather than static concept. To the purist, these 'adaptations' and many similar such studies would no longer be acceptable so as to be termed 'microteaching'. It is the contention of this paper that microteaching in its so-called purest form died at birth, or shortly thereafter with the departure from Stanford of the group originally involved in the experimentation. This is not to suggest that subsequent endeavours have been mere impostors. Microteaching has made a very important contribution to the cause of education and one could hardly counsel suppression of the birth news in order to carry out twelve years of exhaustive research on the infant project.

What does appear to have happened is twofold. Firstly, the concept of microteaching in its published form at Stanford has been taken by many as the Ultima Thule with little concern to its experimental development stage. Secondly, considerable focus has been placed on the cognitive skills development aspect to the detriment of the more affectively oriented skills. In this respect microteaching may have been immortalized as one of the great instructional alternatives.

Much of the work carried out in the area will offend the purist in its deviation from the original but if we take the Popperian approach that the state of the art may be judged by the growth of empirical content of the research we cannot but help find microteaching healthy. Metamorphosed it may be, but it was not the original intent of the conceivers to have

it differently. Much has grown out of the birth of microteaching, and much of that may be a long way from the original appearance but none the less has made a worthwhile contribution to educational development. The mini-teaching format[15], designed to improve and extend microteaching is but one example. It is a refinement that would likely meet the approval, in intent if nothing else, of the originators of microteaching.

The place of microteaching in a teacher preparation programme is dependent upon the purpose of its inclusion. That it should be utilized early and often seems desirable with the caveat that if used throughout the preparation period in a variety of general and nongeneral courses there must be variations designed to achieve specific goals such that boredom and over-familiarity with microteaching per se does not occur.

If there is to be a return to the pure form of microteaching, it may well be that focus needs to be turned on the affective aspects. In a study by Stanton (1978) it was found that the basic requirement for improving the self-concept was present in the microteaching situation. Students experienced feelings of success and were encouraged to view their future training role positively. Sadker et al. (1977) utilized the microteaching format in the development and field testing of a program to prepare teachers in interpersonal skills. The results suggested that "teachers' affective

skills may be increased via training procedures which include the identification of specific behavioral components of affective teaching, the observation of models performing the desired behaviors, and provision for immediate feedback on student performance of these behaviors." (p. 67)

> Humanistic educators would generally agree that possession of a strong self-concept engendering expectation of future success is vital if an individual is to develop his or her potentialities as a human being. Thus, possibly the most important function a teacher can perform is to help a child achieve a positive perception of himself. This assistance he will find difficult to give unless he, too, possesses a favourable self-concept. Teachers who think positively about themselves, who like themselves as people, are more able to encourage similar attitudes in the children they teach than those viewing themselves more negatively (Combs, Blume, Newman & Wass, 1965). It follows, then, that teacher education courses should make some endeavour to bring about such attitudes.
>
> Videotape feedback of teaching performance may provide one means of achieving this objective. Goldman (1969) studied the effects of classroom activity and videotape self-observations upon undergraduate self-concepts, measuring these before and after the experience by means of the California Q sort. Comparison of these two scores indicated that students developed a higher regard for themselves after their classroom and videotape work. Anecdotal evidence from microteaching studies (e.g. Allen & Ryan, 1969; Turney, Clift, Dunkin & Traill, 1973) tends to confirm such a finding.[16]

The concept held by the helper of his client, that is the helper's belief system [17], is essential in any kind of helping relationship and teaching may be so described. Microteaching had an intended role in this development of teacher beliefs and attitudes. If microteaching is, as an approach in teacher education, able to develop a student in the affective domain and that student then meets with discrepancy among practitioners, the microteaching experience will help him solve these discrepancies. The task for microteaching is to develop some directly affective oriented skills and to see if these have transfer value, and if they bring about changes of perception in the students. This may herald a re-birth for microteaching, or at least a second coming.

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